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not an equity judge to-day would consider himself bound by this rule of alleged expediency,² the definitive abolition of it would remove a pitfall from an important field of modern litigation, and is to be desired. Such is the conclusion reached by Professor William Draper Lewis, who has exhaustively set forth in a recent article what he believes to be the only possible, that is, the historical, explanation of the rule. *Injunctions against Nuisances and the Rule Requiring the Plaintiff to Establish His Right at Law*, 56 U. P. L. Rev. 290 (May, 1908). No explanation lies in the necessity of jury trial, inasmuch as equity decides difficult questions of fact in other kinds of injunction cases, as waste, unfair trade competition, trespass and interruption of easement when title is not disputed, and others; moreover, a feigned issue at law, or the statutory equivalent, may always be directed. Professor Lewis fastens the responsibility for the rule chiefly upon Lord Eldon,³ who stood at the end of a century in which the doctrine that no question of title to land could be tried except at law had become fixed.⁴ This prohibition extended to injunctions in support of easements, since these if allowed would usually decide the title to the land or the existence and extent of the title to the easement. On the other hand, no difficulty was felt in entertaining a bill to enjoin waste, because in such a case no question of title would probably be in issue. The mistake which the writer ascribes to Lord Eldon was that he classed bills to abate nuisance, which involve no question of title, with cases on easements instead of with those on waste. The confusion of nuisance with interruption of easement may be traced to the common law assize of nuisance, which lay for either tort, and to the consequent confused nomenclature. The rule, then, not only is useless in modern practice, but grew out of an ancient error of principle.

Some doubt, however, may be cast on the writer's contention that Lord Eldon erred when he applied the same rule of procedure to nuisances as to interruption of easements. Professor Lewis defines nuisance to be the interruption of the plaintiff's use of his property, not involving a trespass, and not actionable unless actually damaging; whereas interruption of easement involves interruption of possession, and is actionable without present damage: in the former class he would put the violation of a landowner's right to pure air, in the latter the violation of a riparian owner's right to pure water. But it does not appear that questions of title would more likely be raised by a bill to enjoin pollution of water than by one to protect air. Again, although the writer admits that the point is open, he indicates his view that a prescriptive right to commit a nuisance⁵ ought not to be countenanced. It is submitted, however, that if the contrary view should be taken, many suits to abate nuisance would present questions of title similar to those presented in the case of an easement claimed by prescription. Finally, at this date certainly the same practical considerations which move the writer to deprecate the rule as to nuisances should apply to the analogous rules governing trespass and easement cases where title is disputed; for the modern landowner probably values the mere title to his land no higher than his right to restrain interference with the enjoyment of it — he needs a common law action no more to protect the one than the other.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF INTERNATIONAL LAW BY STATE COURTS. — As international law comes to be more generally recognized as a complete, though perhaps not yet well defined, system of law, the question naturally presents itself as to how far the citizens of a state, as individual members of society, are to be bound by its precepts. Our courts have frequently decided that when it becomes necessary in the adjudication of a case they will take judicial cognizance of and apply the accepted principles which govern the family of nations.¹

² See Ames, *Cas. Eq. Jur.* 560 n.

³ *Crowder v. Tinkler*, 19 Ves. 617.

⁴ *Pillsworth v. Hopton*, 6 Ves. 51.

⁵ See 2 Wood on Nuisance, Ch. 20.

¹ *Moultrie v. Hunt*, 23 N. Y. 394, 396.

This being so, it has been asserted that international law has been judicially established to be law in the same sense that national law is, and that it constitutes an integral part of the municipal law of England and of the United States.² The soundness of this conclusion is questioned in a recent article. *The Legal Nature of International Law*, by W. W. Willoughby, 2 Am. J. of Int. L. 356 (April, 1908). The author admits as true the statement that our courts will and constantly do adopt and apply established principles of international law; but not, he says, before these principles have first been impliedly adopted by the English or American state as a portion of its municipal law. These principles, the product of international usage and agreement, derive their legal force, when applied in the courts, from the sanction of the state whose laws the court administers. But the apparent conflict of opinion between Mr. Willoughby and Dr. Scott, when reduced to its lowest terms, seems to resolve itself into a matter of phraseology.

When any number of persons associate themselves in one political unit, they must necessarily adopt a law, conceived of as an entity. For "a state is a body of free persons united together for the common benefit, to enjoy peaceably what is their own, and to do justice to others."³ But that assumes the existence of rights. Rights are created by law, and without law there can be no rights; so that the creators of the state in assuming that rights exist, must necessarily adopt, directly or impliedly, a law from which those rights spring. Having adopted law, as yet undefined and perhaps unknown, unless embodied in a statute, the state creates courts of justice into which all men may bring their disputes for settlement; and it is the duty of the judges to discover the law of the case, that is, to apply that part of law which has created the rights and through them the wrongs of the litigants. These decisions are evidence of the law.⁴ By this process have our several states adopted non-statutory common-law principles, and in like manner, Mr. Willoughby says, the principles of international law have been adopted into the law of the state: "thus, in fact, these principles are recognized and enforced, not as international law, but as municipal law." This must in fact be so; for the courts of any state administer only one system of law, comprising many branches, such as contracts, torts, and international law.

It seems difficult to find any real point of difference between the author's conclusions and those reached by Dr. Scott, which he purports to refute. The two seem to uphold, perhaps in different words, the same and, as it undoubtedly seems, the correct view.

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² The Legal Nature of International Law, by James Brown Scott, in 1 Am. J. of Int. L. 831.

³ Chisholm v. Georgia, 2 Dall (U. S.) 419, 455.

⁴ 1 Bl. Comm. 68; Swift v. Tyson, 16 Pet. (U. S.) 1, 18.

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II. BOOK REVIEWS.

THE LAW OF TORTS. By John W. Salmond. London: Stevens and Haynes. 1907. pp. xxviii, 507. 8vo.

The writer of this work is a New Zealand barrister, formerly a Professor of Law in the University of Adelaide, South Australia, and already favorably known as an author through his treatise on Jurisprudence, previously noticed in these pages.¹